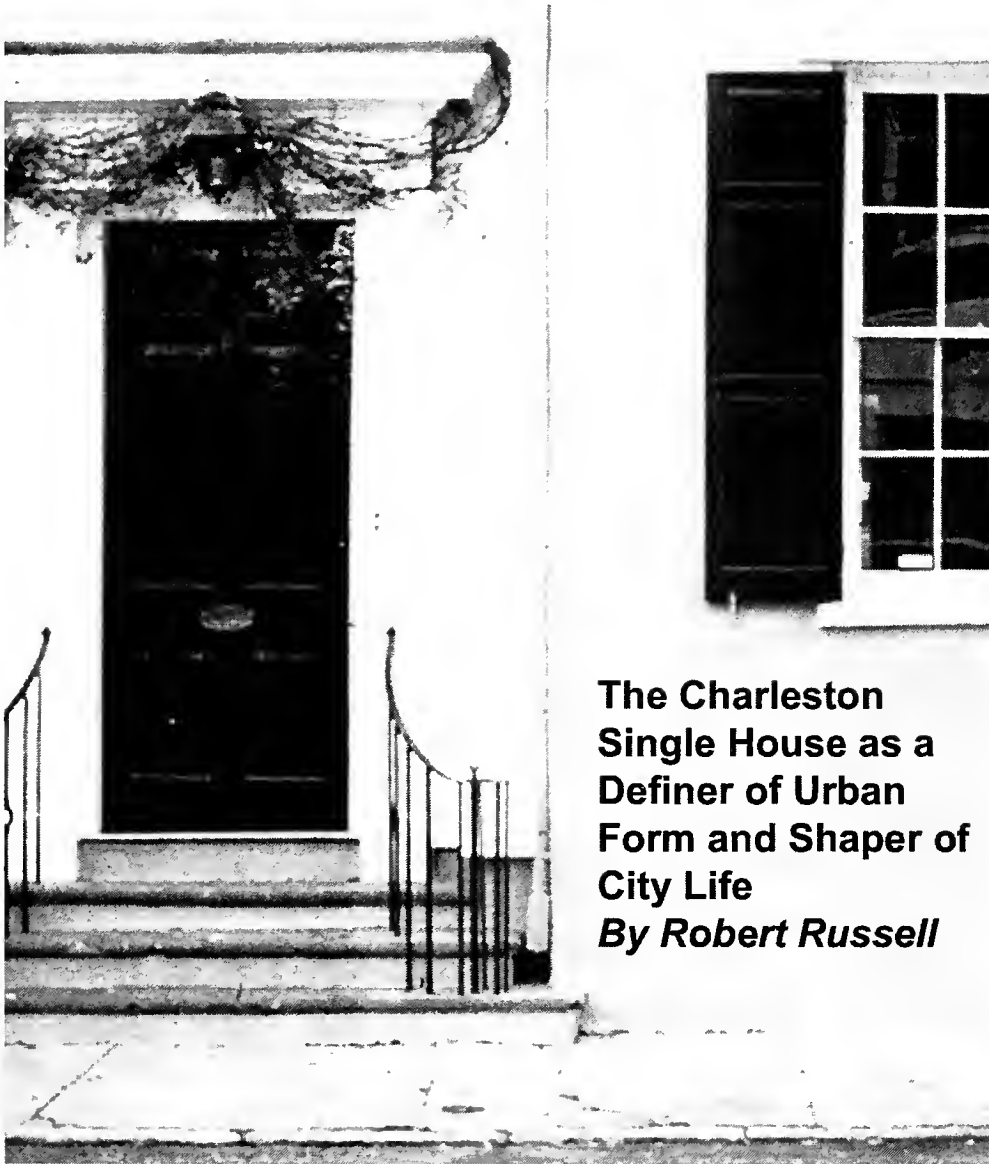


p l a n n i n g



**The Charleston
Single House as a
Definer of Urban
Form and Shaper of
City Life
*By Robert Russell***

A Discussion with James Howard Kunstler on "The National
Automobile Slum" ♦ Edward Kaiser and John Davies -
What a Good Local Development Plan Should Contain ♦
Carroll William Westfall - Civic Art, Civic Life and Urbanism

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From the editors

This issue features a special section on the 1999 Weiss Urban Livability Symposium, held at the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill this past spring. The symposium drew speakers that discussed a wide range of urban issues, including modern architecture, New Urbanism, and lessons we can learn from city building of the past. Included in this issue are abridged versions of articles of several speakers. The entire pieces are to be published in a book on the symposium. We would like to thank symposium organizer Chuck Bohl for working with *Carolina Planning*, and, of course, those who submitted the articles.

Also featured is an article by Edward Kaiser and John Davies, a follow-up to Dr. Kaiser's Winter 1999 piece on land use planning and water quality.

We believe this issue is an improvement, stylistically, on the previous issue. A notable difference is our utilization of different software. The publication was produced on Adobe Pagemaker, which lends itself to a cleaner, more consistent appearance. Other adjustments to the layout have also been made with the goal of producing a more readable, professional publication.

Philip Hervey
Jessica LeVeen
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Editors

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Cover Image: Street facade of a Charleston single house, from a slide taken by Robert Russell.

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Planner's Digest

Increasing Interest in 'Smart Growth' Could Change N.C.'s Role in Growth Management

Robin Zimblar

The introduction this past spring of several growth management bills in the N.C. General Assembly, including two growth bills from lawmakers from Chapel Hill, suggests a dynamic change could be in store as far as the state's role in growth and development. Traditionally local governments in North Carolina have carried the responsibility of establishing land use practices tailored to their own regional issues and available resources. The Coastal Area Management Act of 1974 stands today as the only state legislation governing regional land use in North Carolina. Twenty-five years after the adoption of CAMA, the time appears right for a significant new state growth management model, especially in light of the rapid spread of development in North Carolina that is taxing roads and other urban services in metropolitan areas. Elsewhere in the U.S., states are increasingly getting involved in growth management — an approach which promotes a certain collaboration among state, regional

and local efforts, albeit within the framework of clearly defined statewide legislation.

Growth Management Bills

In April 1999, State Sen. Howard Lee of Chapel Hill introduced Senate Bill 1123, an act to create a special legislative panel, called the Blue Ribbon Growth Study Commission, to address growth, infrastructure and development issues.

In May, Rep. Joe Hackney of Chapel Hill sponsored House Bill 1468, the Growth Management Act of 1999. The bill called for incentives for local government to engage in "effective growth management." A goal of the Growth Management Act sounded radical for these parts: Requiring growth plans to designate urban growth areas to create compact development accommodating both residential and nonresidential growth projected for the 20 years.

Study Commission Approved

Following the introduction of the bills by the Chapel Hill legislators, and a third growth-management bill by a state senator from the coast, the General Assembly approved funding for a 30-member growth study commission. The commission, funded with \$200,000 in state money, is charged with examining growth and development issues. A final

report is due in early 2001.

The commission will examine ideas included in Hackney's bill. The panel will also look at growth management laws from other states, including the "Smart Growth" states of Maryland and Tennessee.

Governor Hunt's 21st Century Communities Task Force

In a parallel effort, Governor Hunt named a task force to elicit public participation and ascertain local opinions regarding growth management. In late August, the seven-member task force began conducting 13 public hearings throughout the state. These hearings focus on four core issues: open space and farmland preservation, coordination between land-use and transportation plans, utilization of existing community assets and coordination between state and local governments. The first meeting, in Johnston County, attracted just a dozen speakers, and only one of those was not associated with real estate development. Because of the lack of participation, that meeting ended early. The task force will report its findings to the Legislature's growth study commission, which begins work in October.

Outlook

Although the creation of the growth study commission and the introduction of the Growth Man-

agement Act reflect increasing concerns for effectively planning and managing continued growth in North Carolina, growth management initiatives frequently meet stiff opposition. Many local governments remain wary of state-mandated programs that inherently limit their traditional control over land-use planning decisions. In addition, homebuilders and real estate interests generally favor allowing the marketplace to dictate growth. Moreover, as witnessed in the emerging disputes over managing growth in Chatham County, local farmers, perhaps the most passionate advocates of property rights, will undoubtedly resist controls imposed by state legislation. Some are happy the state is at least discussing the issue. Molly Diggins, state director of the North Carolina chapter of the Sierra Club, called the study commission "a good start."

"North Carolina's still not ready to take the big steps that Maryland and Tennessee have taken, but we're at least heading down that path now," she told *The (Raleigh) News & Observer* this summer. **CP**

Robin Zimbler is a master's degree candidate in City and Regional Planning at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Reconsidering Traditional Urbanism

Charles C. Bohl

The 1999 Weiss Symposium series assembled a dozen leading figures from the fields of planning, architecture, history, sociology, psychology, and journalism to discuss and debate *traditional urbanism* in five events held in the spring of 1999 at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. This special section presents the ideas of three participants: Robert Russell, James Howard Kunstler, and Carroll William Westfall.

What is Traditional Urbanism?

A recurring question throughout the symposium series concerned, “What is traditional urbanism?” People both within and outside this series have grappled with the question in discussions of *old* urbanism versus *new* urbanism, and traditional urbanism versus traditional (or vernacular) architecture. It may help to first clarify what the current discussion of traditional urbanism does *not* concern.

Critics and scholars very often reduce the notion of traditional urbanism to the urban social problems associated with overcrowded cities of the industrial era and the more recent declining inner city neighborhoods that have suffered decades of middle class flight, disinvestment, crime, and urban blight. This limited portrayal of

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urbanism is typically contrasted with an equally narrow vision of the suburbs. This is a shallow, temporal perspective on traditional urbanism and there is a long overdue need to move beyond this simplistic city-versus-suburb dichotomy that has dominated discussions of metropolitan development since the second World War.

In contrast to the city-versus-suburb dichotomy, the term "traditional urbanism" refers to the many shades of urbanism that preceded the eras of mass urbanization and mass suburbanization, that is, the hamlets, villages, towns, and small cities that were the dominant forms of "urbanism" until the industrial revolution. In light of these precedents, the contemporary notion that 50,000 or even 80,000 people might be too small a population to support a "real town" – the subject of a presentation at the 1998 Congress of the New Urbanism in Denver – seems ahistorical and preposterous. Urban culture has flourished in villages and towns of far fewer than a thousand persons for ages.

While traditional urbanism emphasizes the need to distinguish between many different types of urban settings, it also emphasizes what each of these settings share in common in terms of the physical layout and design of streets, blocks, houses, lots, public spaces, neighborhoods, and the centers and edges of urban places.

When Christopher Alexander (1979) wrote of a "timeless way of building," he was discussing a "time-honored set of practices" that had evolved during more than 5,000 years of constructing buildings, villages, towns, and cities. Thus traditional urbanism refers to what Jim Kunstler (1993) has called "the culture of good placemaking," a set of principles and practices passed down from generation to generation concerning the planning and design of human settlements.

These practices have involved the human scale design of buildings, streets and public spaces; site selection, building orientation and architecture sensitive to natural conditions of sun, wind, seasonal changes, and topography; adaptive reuse of existing structures and incremental growth of communities that blends contextually with adjacent buildings and neighborhoods; the allocation of the most central and prestigious sites within the community for buildings and spaces of public importance; and the fact that aesthetic concerns were treated as at least

of equal importance as matters of convenience, and the structural requirements of buildings and infrastructure. The majority of these practices, as Alexander reminds us, were followed unconsciously, not encoded into law.

This tradition was completely uprooted during the 20th century as a result of a variety of factors including revolutions in transportation and communications, rapid population growth and migration, changing demographics and lifestyle preferences, an unprecedented rise in the standard of living, and the introduction of mass production techniques in real estate development. While all of these were important contributing factors, the hegemony of Modernism in architecture and planning — which defined itself in opposition to prior traditions in planning and design — was by far the most instrumental ingredient in the demise of traditional urbanism.

As a result, the tradition of good placemaking (characterized by mixed uses, compactness, civic mindedness, human scale and pedestrian-orientation) was supplanted by what has been called "conventional" planning and development (characterized by segregated uses, dispersion into low-density pods, market forces, and automobile-scale and orientation), or "conventional suburban design." Like the dictionary's definition of tradition, "conventional" refers to something "conforming to established practice or accepted standards; based on or in accordance with general agreement, use, or practice." Unlike tradition, however, it also refers to something considered "devoted to or bound by conventions to the point of artificiality; unimaginative; and conformist." As such, conventional planning and development is characterized by the repetitive use of stock plans for homes, subdivisions, shopping centers, and office parks, and conformance to street design standards and zoning ordinances drafted by traffic engineers and lawyers with little, if any, training in physical planning and urban design.

Urbanism: Old and New

The reconsideration of traditional urbanism is not simply a historical or nostalgic exercise. The past decade has witnessed an explosion of interest in alternative development models based on traditional urbanism. What began largely as an architectural and urban design movement has blossomed into a national and international debate over growth

and redevelopment involving planners, citizen groups, policy makers, and academia. Well-known paradigms being advanced include Andres Duany and Elizabeth Plater-Zyberk's neo-traditionalism, Peter Calthorpe's pedestrian pockets and transit-oriented design, Leon Krier's urban quarters, and Anton Nelessen's small communities.

Collectively these ideas have become known as New Urbanism, an increasingly influential and controversial movement with its own charter, Congress, and membership organization. The new urbanism is nothing less than this generation's answer to CIAM, the modernist organization and movement which dominated the fields of planning and architecture worldwide beginning in the 1930s.

The connection between traditional urbanism and the new urbanism is strong. The new urbanism clearly traces its roots back to the thought and works of Camillo Sitte, Raymond Unwin, John Nolen, Werner Hegemann, Elbert Peets, and other pre-WWII figures in architecture and planning. The movement also identifies with, and was preceded by, pioneering research on traditional urbanism by urban morphologists, typologists, urban historians, and urban designers. These individuals have contributed greatly to the revival of interest in traditional urbanism, and include Rob and Leon Krier, Aldo Rossi, Anne Vernez-Moudon, Kevin Lynch, Vincent Scully, Jr., Allan Jacobs, George Cullen, Sam Bass Warner, Robert Stern, and William Whyte to name but a few. The new urbanism has also revived interest in the works of Lewis Mumford and Jane Jacobs, both of whom decried the destruction of traditional urban forms and yet disagreed over the essential ingredients of urban life, a debate which continues amongst New Urbanists with respect to the balance between civic and commercial uses.

Civics, Manners and Laws

One of the most essential aspects of traditional urbanism concerns its civic nature. In the context of traditional urbanism, we are concerned with the role of public institutions, public spaces, and civic ideals in the creation and sustenance of urban places that encourage and support the civic life of our communities.

Jim Kunstler (1996) has written that civic art is "the effort we make to honor and embellish the public realm with architecture and design, in order to

make civic life possible." The public realm is important to our communities because, as Kunstler writes, it is "the manifestation of the public good." Civic life, for Kunstler, is simply "what goes on in the public realm," that combination of chance encounters, meeting and greeting, watching, protesting, gathering, strolling, and experiencing our communities of place.

Unfortunately, the term civic art has come to be misinterpreted as simply urban beautification involving the location of monuments and artistic works. As practiced and understood by the great planners and architects of the early 20th century, however, it involved the art of creating a civic realm through the arrangement, orientation, and design of both public and private buildings. As Leon Krier (1998) has noted, all buildings have a public face, and the civic character of places depends on the extent that both public and private buildings honor and contribute to the community's public realm. Going a step further, it can be argued that the quality of traditional urbanism is more about the character and experience of the spaces between buildings, rather than the buildings themselves. It's about the creation of a human scale public realm, which is where the civic life of a community takes place.

Daniel Kemmis, the Mayor of Missoula, Montana, has written that:

"(T)he word 'Civil' originally meant simply 'of the city.' Civility was what it took to live next to one another as cities, by definition, require people to do. But if civility is a requisite for cities to exist at all, civilization goes a stage beyond this. Civilization is not only a city that worked by allowing people to live near one another, but a good city – one that enables its inhabitants to live good lives together." (Kemmis 1995, pp. 11-12)

One person who does not misinterpret the practice of civic art, or its relationship to the civic life of cities, is Carroll William Westfall. In his article on "Civic Art, Civic Life and Urbanism," Westfall embraces the notion of the good city first articulated by Plato and Aristotle. He views urban places as settings where people willingly come together to


define what is good and just. Just as musical composition requires notes and scales, he sees traditional and classic architecture as the language of urbanism. In discarding this language, Westfall declares, the "modernists have broken the city," and "only a rejection of modernism can fix it."

For Jim Kunstler (1993), the break in our placemaking tradition reaches beyond the fields of architecture and planning, showing up in our failure as a culture to define "what constitutes a life worth living," and to transform our laws and practices in order to "create places worth caring for." In failing to address these more fundamental issues, Kunstler feels we are only dealing with symptoms when we discuss issues such as affordable housing, automobile dependency and growth management.

In "Buildings, Manners and Laws," Robert Russell strikes a more pragmatic note in his discussion of the Charleston, South Carolina "single house." Russell explores the single house, not simply as a historical curiosity, but as a "type" of residential building that has been successfully adapted for housing Charleston's rich and poor, black and white, small families and large families for much of the city's history. Russell extols the virtues of the single house "as a definer of urban form and shaper of city life." The adaptability of the type allows it to blend together adjacent homes built in different centuries with dramatically different property values, and sized and located on lots of differing sizes. The single house also provided a tool for carrying out Charleston's scattered site public housing program, which was implemented in part "by adapting a recognizable domestic form – the single house – to public housing purposes." But perhaps most significant, for the creation of traditional urbanism, Russell notes that the piazza of the single house acts as "an intermediate and mediating zone between private and public aspects of living in the single house." By articulating the transition between public and private realms through a series of transitional indoor and outdoor spaces, the single house acts as a building block of traditional urbanism, in contrast to ranch homes and subdivision products that act as a dissolvent.

Interestingly, Westfall, Kunstler and Russell all to some degree discuss language, manners and laws in relation to traditional urbanism. For the most part they confront the loss of a common language and

practice of traditional placemaking. But in the end, all three also emphasize the need to change the laws that now make the building of new Charlestons, Savannahs, and Nantuckets illegal in most of the United States. As Westfall writes, "these are American cities, embodying the principles upon which our nation was founded. They too were built according to laws and ordinances—different ones from the ones we now have, many of them implicit understandings of how the civic life ought to be conducted within a community."

The advent of the new urbanism is showing that contemporary development can be reconfigured in the form of small villages, towns, and urban neighborhoods that adapt to modern lifestyles. Changes in Americans' attitudes towards planning, development, and lifestyle preferences also suggest that civic life remains important for many people who see themselves both as individuals and as part of their larger communities. As dissatisfaction with sprawl and the suburban lifestyle continues to mount it is likely that even greater numbers of Americans will reconsider traditional urbanism. 

Editor's Note: The "Traditional Urbanism Reconsidered" symposium was sponsored by the Charles & Shirley Weiss Urban Livability Program. Charles Bohl conceived and organized the Traditional Urbanism Reconsidered Symposium, held in the spring of 1999 at UNC-Chapel Hill.

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Buildings, Manners and Laws

The Charleston Single House as a Definer of Urban Form and Shaper of City Life

Robert Russell

When Charles Town was incorporated as Charleston, South Carolina in 1783, just over 100 years after being established, she adopted as her municipal motto the Latin phrase *Aedes, Mores Legaue Curat* – “she takes care of her buildings, her manners and her laws.” It tells a lot about what kind of place Charleston is. The buildings I want to talk about here are houses, one particular – and particular to Charleston – house type especially. It is known as the “single house.” There are, as I will show, particular ways of living – manners – that go with this kind of house and with a city made up of these houses. There may not ever have been any laws in Charleston regulating building types (though there were, and continue to be, plenty of building regulations) but there seems to have been something that urged individuals in a similar direction over a long period of time. And it certainly is the case that some general principles – rules, if not quite laws – can be drawn from an examination of Charleston domestic architecture that are still suitable for use today.

The Single House

The single house is unique to Charleston. This is a remarkable thing to say about any architectural form, for there are very few examples of this sort of singularity in the history of architecture. The most immediately recognizable characteristic of the single house is

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The Robert Brewton house as it looked in the 1700 (above), and today (right). It is frequently cited in literature about Charleston as the earliest surviving single



that it is turned sideways to the street – that is, it has its short side where most have their long side.¹ This is not, in itself, enough to define the Charleston single house, for there are numerous places where houses are oriented in this manner. There are plenty of examples of houses that have merely been cranked around on their lots, even in Charleston. The Robert Brewton house, of around 1733 (pictured above), is frequently cited in literature about Charleston as the earliest surviving single house. It is indeed turned sideways to the street, but all that means is that it looks like a regular Georgian house that has been mislaid. Now it is true that old views show the house as once having had more to it than it does now, so it is possible that it might represent an early stage in single house development.² It is only a single room wide, which is where the name for the type comes from, but I would not go so far as to call it a single house.

To be a single house, it must have a porch, some-

thing like the Robert Brewton house had a century ago. And the porch must be attached to the side of the house, not to its front. In Charleston the common term for this side porch is piazza.³

The piazza is on the side of the single house for several reasons, all of them good. Many houses in Charleston, single or otherwise, are brought right up to the street and so there is no room for a front porch. The piazza can serve an important function as a sun break and general shading device for the house, which is why it generally appears on the south or west sides of houses, rather than the north or east. But the most important reason that piazzas are located on the side, it seems to me, is because that is

where the front door of the single house is.

What this adds up to is a rectangular house turned sideways to the street, with the entrance door set more or less in the middle of the long side, rather than on the street. It does not take a lot of thinking to recognize a problem here. This is a patently unsatisfactory house type. It is not, clearly, a row house. Neither is it in any reasonable sense a self-contained, freestanding house, for one does not experience it as such. It lacks almost all street presence, for its most dignified element, the entryway, is hidden down the side of the house.

The piazza, that multi-purpose problem solver, solves all of these potential problems. One of the most characteristic elements of the Charleston single house piazza is that it is not only a side porch, but also acts as a main entrance to the house, for its street side is not merely defined by more balusters, but is screened by a solid wall with a door in it.

The ground floor street façade of the single

house presents an entrance door bay with two window bays next to it (see photo, below). Upon looking up at the second floor, however, it becomes evident that the entrance door leads not into the house, but into a space along side it: the piazza.

The final characteristic, but still curious, element of the single house is that its “back” side – the side away from the entrance and the piazza – is frequently only marginally fenestrated. There might well be a window letting light into the stair hall in the center of the house, but the two main rooms themselves will have no windows on the side away from the piazza.

A flexible form

A characteristic of the single house type is its remarkable elasticity. It can expand and contract without losing its coherence; more so, I think, than any other kind of American house. They can be quite modest (see photo, following page), or they can be very grand indeed, but it is the same type, merely expanding or shrinking as resources and lot sizes

allow.

The single house can balloon up to almost five stories, or shrink down to one, but it is still the same house type: stacked floors, each with essentially two rooms divided by a circulation core. It is frequently the case that single houses have double piazzas now, one on top of another, but there is some evidence that up until about 1840 they only had one piazza, at the entrance level. If this is true, and it seems to be, it makes it more difficult to accept the argument that the piazza is simply a logical response to the miserable summer climate in Charleston. In this view the piazza was created primarily as a sunshade to screen the living quarters of the house proper.⁵ There is no doubt that piazzas do this very well, but it is difficult to argue that their primary purpose was merely this. As with the more general argument that the single house was a one-dimensional functional response to the semi-tropical Charleston climate, this contention does not answer all the questions that arise. Why, for example, if the piazza was conceived as a sun break, would it take about 100 years for



The ground floor street facade of the single house presents an entrance door bay with two window bays next to it.

Charlestonians to figure out that two of them stacked on top of each other would shade both the main floors of the house?⁶

It seems, in fact, to be the case that the function of the piazza was as an intermediate and mediating zone between private and public aspects of living in the single house. That is, the completely private realm of house proper and the increasingly public nature of the areas beginning outside the front door: the yard, the view to the street, the street itself, and finally the city as a whole. It permitted the house to turn away from the street but still act like a "normal" house with a street door. Recall the Charleston piazza is not just a side porch. The piazza door and its surround act as a screening wall, making the activities on the piazza at least partially private. This tricky entranceway permitted narrow Charleston houses to maintain their semi-symmetry as well as their semi-privacy. With the streetdoor screen, and the nearly unfenestrated back wall of the single house next door, the piazza provided a place where Charleston families could expand a bit.

But only a bit. The tradition until very recently has been that you behaved on the piazza essentially as if you were in public, rather than at home. This meant, for instance, that men would not remove their suitcoats while on the piazza even in the considerable heat of summer. This was because piazzas are generally at least partially visible from the street. They did not function as front porches did: that is, as an officially, publicly visible place buffering the house from the street. Rather they linked the house to the street by providing an intermediate zone, understood by Charlestonians to be both part of the house and at the same time visible – even if only imperfectly – to the larger world, and therefore a part of that world. You sit on a front porch to see what is happening on the street. You sit on a piazza to enjoy a modicum of privacy in a town

where privacy is a rare commodity. The great American 20th century private area – the back yard – had not yet come to exist generally in Charleston. Either it was an area occupied by staff – slaves before 1865, servants after that, or it was where you kept your chickens, perhaps a pig, and the privy. Privies were disappearing in the 1950s and '60s, but you could still find the occasional chicken in downtown Charleston rear yards as recently as the early '70s. The back yard is, thus, a recent Charleston discovery.

By far the most common appearance of the house in the nineteenth century is in its working class



Single houses of the more modest variety. The house type has remarkable elasticity: it can expand and contract without losing its coherence.

version. There are hundreds of what might be called Chevy-version single houses surviving around town, especially in the boroughs settled during the 1840s. They are midway between the full-blown, grand models and the post-war freedman's cottage. Invariably they are two storied, with four rooms – two downstairs and two up. Occasionally they have a habitable garret, but usually not. They are close together, so that the standard single house rhythm of the house-piazza-yard is much speeded up. Nevertheless, all the necessary elements are there: sideways house, street door, piazza, and unfenestrated house back. For contemporary planners and designers looking to learn something from this type, per-

haps the most helpful – certainly the most useful – thing is that these Chevys are very often found cheek by jowl with the Cadillac single houses without a jarring note. There are neighbors of working-class single houses, and a few neighborhoods – streets, really – of grand singles, but for the most part you can find a compact and thorough mix of size, which translates to a mix of class.

By this point – the antebellum years – the house type had become Charleston tradition, and if there had ever been some sort of original external pressure on property owners that had tended to steer them in the direction of the single house, it had long disappeared. This now was simply how Charlestonians built their houses and lived in them.

What we can learn from the single house

There are, I believe, things that can be learned from Charleston's housing story; things that perhaps may be found to have continuing use and value in the present day.

The single house, as popular and common as it was in 18th and 19th-century Charleston, suffered in the 20th. It was too local and out of the ordinary as Charlestonians shifted to more mainstream forms of domesticity. Early 20th-century Charleston has its share of four-squares and Williamsburg cottages, while single houses are pretty thin on the ground. Even old-line Charlestonians seem to have been a little embarrassed by their singular domestic past. *The Dwelling Houses of Charleston*, published in 1917, and still revered locally, essentially ignored the single house type. When it was necessary to include a single house in this book, in almost every case the exterior is ignored and the elegant interiors are illustrated. In the Depression, when it became necessary for the first time to provide housing for the temporarily down-and-out, the project that was built in the middle of town replaced a lot of old single houses with housing that, while pleasant enough, was unremarkable.⁷

Before continuing in this vein, it is necessary to turn back for a moment to make a point. Around 1850 an English visitor to Charleston observed what he obviously considered to be a remarkable phe-

nomenon. He said that Charleston had no middle class, it was either rich or poor. My suspicion is that he was lodging with members of the former class, and that in comparison – in the view from the piazza, as it were—everyone else looked to occupy the latter category. But in 1850 the apparent difference would have been one more of degree than of kind, particularly when looking at dwellings. By 1850, the difference was the deadly one of complete otherness. The poor had been made to look poor, and present-day Charleston has its share of dreary and dismal housing projects that stigmatize their residents by the mere fact of their living in them.

By the early 1980s the then-new mayor of Charleston, Joe Riley, had recognized this. He was not alone in his concern, but he had a weapon to fight the drawbacks of mainstream public housing unavailable to most other public figures searching for an alternative: the advantage of local history. As the Charleston Housing Authority began to move into scattered site housing, Mayor Riley, more clearly perhaps than anyone else, recognized that Charleston's ace in the hole could be found in the single house. The whole idea of scattered site housing of course is that the previously stigmatized poor

The flexibility of the single house provides housing authorities a way to avoid stigmatizing the poor when developing scattered-site housing projects.

– stigmatized by their address, and what their address looked like – would be able to get out from underneath that burden by moving into more neutral, less distinctly poverty-stricken quarters. But how is one to neutralize public housing? In Charleston it was done by adapting a recognizable domestic form – the single house – to public housing purposes.


New Urbanists, Andres Duany perhaps most vocally, have been arguing for years that people respond to differences in form in housing more immediately than they do to differences in size. By approaching a recognizable house type for subsidized housing purposes the Charleston Housing

Authority effectively disguised its units. There is a lesson to be learned here, one whose subtlety and sophistication are generally lost on the sort of builders and developers whose idea of good urban form extends to little more than porches and picket fences. Occasionally one finds something like the single house referred to as a "side yard house." This reduction of the type to a relationship between the house and its lot is an unthinking suburban degradation of what is in fact merely a part of the larger whole. Earlier I pointed out that many single houses are essentially devoid of windows on their backside. There are also many that have windows too, frequently windows that were added. But this characteristic has given rise to a distinct Charleston phenomenon known as the "northside manners." You may have windows on the backside of your house, but you are not supposed to look out of them. You may not comment on anything that you see in your neighbor's yard, since this would be an admission that you had violated the privacy principle. It is perhaps a little comical to put it this way, but the principle makes a lot of sense in Charleston, which has a city fabric that is remarkably dense by American standards. The single house requires a neighboring house to be complete. Paradoxically you need your neighbor to have your privacy.

Because style is frequently confused with typology by people who don't think very hard about the differences, it is often the case that people – too frequently architects – object to contemporary revivals of the single house form as a supposed manifestation of social conservatism, along the lines of objections to the current preoccupation (in some quarters) with front porches. But in Charleston at least, large parts of the urban fabric have developed to accommodate the single house. One may, in fact, rightly object to the efforts of those who have ignored that fabric and have attempted to impose thoughtless alternatives on it.

On the other hand, it is possible to find in Charleston examples of typological continuity that transcend mere issues of style. On one block, for instance, one can find nearly 150 years of building evident in five contiguous houses. One dates to around 1840. There are two other 19th-century examples, and two were built after the devastation of Hurricane Hugo in 1989. Further, they are all right next door to a big, early 19th-century plantation-style

house. As straightforward as the single houses are, they do not detract from the grandeur of the big house. But neither is the grand house necessary to the dignity of the single houses, which do not suffer unduly by proximity. It is also a practical (and not insignificant) fact that the property value of the big house has not been diminished because it happens to be located next to these small houses.

Although the Charleston single house is indeed a singular form, I want to argue that what it primarily demonstrates is the value of architectural type in relation to place. But this does not mean that all types are equally useful or valuable. The postwar American ranch house is a type that is neither as useful nor as valuable as the single house as a definer of coherent urban form. Whenever ranch houses are introduced into towns and cities the urban form is quickly reduced to incoherence. I am certainly not arguing that if we are ever to learn how to speak clearly again as urbanists and designers we must return to the single house. But I do suggest that it has much that we should value as a form in itself, as a form that carries with it suggestions of a particular manner of thought and living, and finally as a yardstick – if not a rule – of good architectural and urban design. 

Notes

¹These "houses stand sideways backward into their yards, and onely endwaies with their gables towards the street." T. Fuller, *Worthies, Exeter*, quoted in A.R. Huger Smith and D.E. Huger Smith, *The Dwelling Houses of Charleston, South Carolina*, New York, 1917 (facsimile edition, Diadem Books, New York, n.d.), p. 43.

²The drawing in Plate 2, from *The Dwelling Houses of Charleston*, was made in the early 20th century and represents the house as having a door at the street front, but next to the house proper. This opened onto a sort of gallery, called a piazza, that led as far as the front door, which opened in the middle of the long side of the house. According to Jonathan Poston, however (*The Buildings of Charleston*, Columbia, S.C., 1997, p. 73), the piazza dated to only the late 19th century. It seems to me, however, much more likely that the late-19th-century owners were attempting to bring the Brewton house more into conformity with what Charleston single houses were understood to be, than that it actually constitutes some presumed "early form" of the type.

³ The use of the Italian word piazza to refer to a covered porch or walk is a standard 18th-century piece of English misunderstanding, derived from the Inigo Jones' Covent Garden of 1631. Jones, who was an Italophile – or at least a Palladiophile – created the first public square in England and called it a piazza, since he had been in Italy and had seen them. His fellow countrymen, most of whom had not had the pleasure of knocking around northern Italy, thought that the term piazza referred to the covered walkways edging the square on two of its sides, rather than to the open market space in the center. By the middle of the 18th century, Dr. Johnson's dictionary defined piazza solely as "a walk under a roof supported by columns."

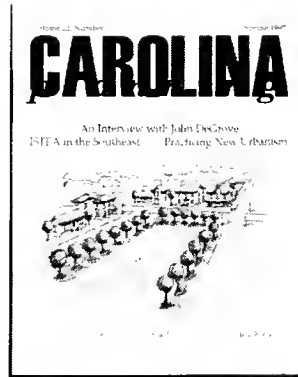
⁴ I want to thank Carter Hudgins, director of Historic Charleston Foundation, for this piece of information.

⁵ If this were the case then it should follow that all piazzas would shade the western or southern faces of the houses that they were on, since these sides receive the fiercest direct sunlight. But since there are at least a few single houses with their piazzas on the "wrong side," this reductivist explanation fails to satisfy.

⁶ The reader may perhaps have noticed that I have avoided

the entire issue of the dating of the single house type. This is because it is essentially unknown. Gene Waddell, a knowledgeable student of Charleston architecture, feels that the single house was invented in the aftermath of the fire of 1740, which destroyed a substantial part of the town. Kenneth Severens, who is presently researching just this question, is working on the hypothesis that the single house appears in the later colonial period, but does not tie it to any particular Charleston disaster. Though no hard evidence has yet come to light, it may not be unreasonable to peg the first appearance of a recognizable single house to around the middle of the 18th century. This would mean that for nearly the first century of its existence, single houses were fitted with only a single piazza.

⁷ The Robert Mills Manor is, by the general standards of American public housing, of very high quality. It is also located immediately adjacent to highly sought-after residential areas. The new housing blocks that were constructed in 1937 have little that relates them to Charleston, but in a couple of cases single houses that stood on the site were incorporated into the housing.



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‘The National Automobile Slum’

*James Howard Kunstler on Cities,
Architecture, and Planning in the U.S.*

EDITOR'S NOTE: James Howard Kunstler spoke at the Weiss Symposium in April on “The National Automobile Slum as America’s Public Realm.” The following is an excerpt from a question and answer session that followed his talk. The questions are from people in attendance, and have been paraphrased.

The problems and solutions you discuss seem to be primarily matters of urban design. Another side to that point is economic development. One could argue that good urban design costs more. Would you address the problem of developers who would go elsewhere when they are faced with rules and regulations that make them build things that cost more?

KUNSTLER: Well I would ask you to consider this. You look back at American history and look at the wonderful places we were able to create in earlier times. Go look at the quadrangle at the college of Charleston, or some of your better ensembles here at Chapel Hill. Look at your 1906 fire houses, and your 1880 school buildings and your 1912 hospitals and ask yourself, was that a less affluent society than ours? Well by a far sight they were less wealthy than our society yet their standards would not permit them to build crummy buildings.

The fact of the matter is one of the great subtexts of the modernist

James Howard Kunstler is the author of Geography of Nowhere and Home from Nowhere.

movement, both in practice and in schools, has been to create a rationale for builders to build the crummiest, cheapest building possible over the last 50 years, to create an intellectual framework in which that's OK. There's a point where we have to draw the line and say it's not OK to just put up cinderblock buildings anymore. We need to live in places that are spiritually rewarding. And believe me this is going to be a major stumbling point. Americans do not believe that towns can be spiritually gratifying communities.

And it's your job to prove we can accomplish that. And if we don't we'll never solve these problems. The only way we're going to get people to accept anything other than a cartoon of a country is to create towns that are deeply gratifying and rewarding to be in. This is a cultural problem, not an economic problem. It is the culture of quantification that is fogging your mind to make you think this is merely an economic problem it is culture, culture, culture and culture.

How much are the age of the automobile and the love affair with the car related to the decline of architecture in America?

KUNSTLER: Obviously I think it's had a catastrophic effect in the way we've chosen to use it. Anyone who thinks that we're going to be driving around 25 years the way we have been ought to have their head examine. There are many things that could happen. One of the most obvious things is that at any given moment, the overwhelming majority of cars in America are sitting in storage, in parking lots or parked along streets. If we could just get to a situation where we just had vehicles circulating, not sitting in parking lots, that would be great. And it's possible to do that. The ability to do that is not beyond us.

The Europeans already have some interesting arrangements. They have these things called car clubs where for about a thousand bucks a year, you can join this organization, they have a lot near you. When you need a car, you go take one. You have a

key to a certain box that has the car keys in it, and you take whatever vehicle you need, whether it's pickup truck or a little touring car. And the benefit is you don't have to take care of the car, maintain it, you don't have to worry about insurance, any of that stuff. And you pay less per year than if you owned the car and you don't have to worry about where you park it or store it. And the fact of the matter is, Americans on average, just to be quantitative for a moment, it is estimated that it costs 6,000 bucks a

year for the average American to have a car. For \$6,000 a year you could rent a Lexus every weekend and still go on an excursion every weekend and still have enough money left over to go to Paris for two weeks. The amount of money we're wasting just on car ownership itself is kind of repugnant.

So I also think what we're going to see is we're going to witness the dis-democratization of the car. What we've seen over the last 75 years is the democ-

ratization of the car, the mass ownership and use of the car. I think that more and more the car is going to be something that only the well off can afford. As we develop a greater gap between the people who are doing OK and those who are not doing OK that we're going to see a greater gap between car owners and those who don't own a car. And believe me the people who are not car owners who are stuck living in a car dependent suburban wasteland, are going to be really angry and they are going to express themselves politically by voting for maniacs. And we're going to be in a lot of trouble unless we make accommodations for people who are going to have less and are not able to drive their own cars.

I don't understand everything you're saying about architecture. Do you think there's a place for modern, innovative architecture?

KUNSTLER: I think the whole idea of innovative architecture, except for a lot of esoteric questions...,

is a phony matter of estheticism that has been masquerading as creativity and innovation and has been sold to you folks that way by the mandarins of the university. But it is really (wrong). We probably don't need a lot of new forms. What we need is just for starters to gain enough expertise in dealing with the forms that are already understood and emulating the forms that have already existed so we can start again from that point. No I think it's really oversold. And one of the hallmarks is this, the need to be creative is also prone to the need to create buildings that stand by themselves, not buildings that define space, or buildings that share space, but buildings that just occupy space. The result of it is object buildings that don't relate to the objects around it. If there's one thing we don't need any more of is narcissistic object buildings by narcissistic egomaniacal architects that exist for nothing more than to exist in space and glorify their creativity. In fact I think it can be genuinely said that architecture is a field which right can benefit so much from less creativity than from more creativity that it's not funny.

New Urbanism stresses creating a livable environment, but the movement does not necessarily allow for the crud such as manufacturing. Do you see a way that these communities can responsibly accommodate less desirable uses such as manufacturing?

KUNSTLER: I don't view New Urbanism just as a movement for building new towns, TNDs, PUDs and new subdivisions. I view it as simply an effort to reform civic design and restore it to our culture. There probably will continue to be good reasons to separate some uses. We're literally not going to want to have steel stamping plants in a residential neighborhood; this is self-evident. But I think one of the points that has been made by people like Peter (Calthorpe) and Andres Duany is that there are an awful lot of activities which simply are not as obnoxious as they used to be, they are now compatible.

And I think another thing is, along with the reduced economies of scale of our activities of the

21st century, and the fact that a lot of people will be working at home in a new relationship to their home, the organization of work will be quite different than what it's been in the last 150 years of the industrial age. Remember the industrial age is really a social-technological revolution that the world never saw before, and we didn't really know how that would

If there's one thing we don't need any more of is narcissistic object buildings by narcissistic egomaniacal architects that exist for nothing more than to exist in space and glorify their creativity.

play out.... So the way that human societies organize work and organize themselves can change drastically, and I think it will change drastically in the next century. So I think our cities will have much different texture, quality and shape, and a lot of them will be a lot better if we're lucky.

Do you see growth management strategies, such as Smart Growth in Maryland, playing a role in bringing about better urban design?

KUNSTLER: I view the term growth management as being symptomatic of the confusion Americans are feeling about what's happening. The fact of the matter is places like Chapel Hill and places all over the country could have enormous amounts of development within their boundaries, and in their downtowns. American towns are full of desolation and underutilized parcels. So the idea that we need to stop it, that we need to stop development... one of the things that I recommend is that we stop using the word "growth" and start using the term "economic activity."

The word "growth" has all these (connotations) like cancer, malignancy. Chapel Hill has 'growth.' Let's go get an MRI for Chapel Hill. It's possible to have a lot of economic activity without necessarily smearing the civic amenity of the town over the countryside.

I know that in my hometown of Saratoga, a population of 29,000, we have portions of our down-

town, and various superblocs that have been urban renewed where you can fit the entire city of Siena, Italy, just in that one little corner of town. And I don't know what it will take. I do think it will take a shock to the system for people to realize the opportunities are there.

Probably the most important thing you can do in your towns, aside from reestablishing the normality of the building block, is to do everything possible to promote residential development downtown and in town of every type of building. You have got to have rich people living in town. All over America the wealthy will not live in the city. They will only occupy the leafy suburbs. The political progressives I think are confused about that. We have a war against gentrification. Gentrification is a dirty word, but unfortunately if you are against gentrification it immediately puts you in a philosophical position of being against fixing up anything in the town and it says essentially people who are well off are morally restricted to life in the suburbs. And so if you take that position ... So I think that progressives have got to reexamine some of their positions to get their heads straight.

A lot of people worry that when you make cities more desirable to live in you restrict lower income people to the suburbs. I was wondering if you could speak to the necessity of socioeconomic diversity in cities.

KUNSTLER: Most of the problems of affordable housing in America are self-afflicted. We have created an artificial problem that now needs an artificial solution, which is a commodity called affordable housing. And the main reason it happens is

we've outlawed all the normal forms of affordable housing. For 50 years we haven't built apartments over stores. For 50 years all of our commercial development and building has come in the form of one-story buildings in the middle of parking lagoons. And 50 years later, since we didn't build it in the first place, none of it is getting older, and hence more affordable, because in the normal course of things affordable housing is the housing that is old.

In most residential American neighborhoods we have outlawed accessory apartments and outbuildings. This is also customarily the abode of people who made less money and they were distributed equitably around the town in different neighborhoods behind the alleys and behind the houses, and we have to make it legal again. What you'll find is the political progressives are all for open space and green space, but the first time somebody suggests that they allow accessory apartments in the neighborhood they call their lawyers and start a NIMBY war, and reveal themselves to be the hypocrites that they are.

We decided (in establishing zoning) that shopping was an obnoxious industrial activity that people shouldn't be able to live around. And by making that fundamental decision we made it impossible to assemble the urban pattern that had been followed by everybody in the rest of the world. So we're going to have to revisit that fundamental principle and change it. But I do think that we've got to make it OK for the wealthy to be part of our town. Because the welfare of our town, the future of our town has to be the responsibility of all classes, not just the poor, not just the victims, but the well off, the employed, the gainfully occupied, the responsible, and even the rich drunks, have to be responsible. ☐

Civic Art, Civic Life and Urbanism

Carroll William Westfall

Let me lay out some premises of what follows. These premises can be known, but they cannot be proven. They reside in the realm of articles of faith, of propositions that are self-evident to the wise, and in the domain of truth. They belong in nature, and knowing them helps define human nature.

One such point is this: The mature, sane person understands that the most urgent task he faces is the one posited in the New Testament and posed by the Delphic oracle: Know thyself.

Another is this: There have been wise people before us who have something useful to teach us.

There is a third one: To know oneself, to draw on what others have to teach, requires participation a community, or more precisely, in three communities. One is composed of those who have preceded us and with whom we have an affiliation. Another is made up of our contemporaries. And a third is formed from those yet to come whose lives we will have improved through our actions.

And finally there is this: Not all things are of equal value. Things that promote knowledge of oneself, things whose value has allowed them to survive across time, and things that bind us across time and into communities are to be valued above all other things.

The avatars of this position are now called modernists. They claim that any individual is at least as wise as those proceeding him, that

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knowing oneself is best manifested by responding to impulses, urges, and intuitions untouched by ratiocination and unchecked by tradition, and that the individual is self-sufficient and others are there only to serve his ends.

Finally, they suggest that nothing is necessarily more important than something else, that logic or reason is an adequate judge of truth, if, that is, there is anything that can be called truth, or indeed if there is anything outside ourselves.

These days, the modernists, who are narcissists, rationalists, relativists, and nihilists, are dominant. And these days we find we are unable to build cities. (I need not demonstrate how things are broken. After all, the premise of this symposium is that our cities are broken and need fixing.) Our inability to build cities demonstrates their dominance. Their dominance is the cause of our inability.

The modernists have broken the city. Only a rejection of modernism can fix it. The premises I placed at the beginning provide the basis for the replacement of modernism by traditionalism.

Traditionalism recognizes that a city is first of all, that is, most importantly, a place where people live in a community. That community knows that only the city can allow people to seek the perfection of their nature. A city is a place that puts truth above mere fact. And it understands that the moment in which we live is connected to all moments in the past and the prelude to what follows.

A Conversation About Architecture

The city we build is the good city which is the nearest possible embodiment of the best city which

exists only in words. The words sketch out the aspirations that are then embodied in the actions of the citizens. The best city seeks the perfection of all its members; therefore, all must be allowed to participate.

So too in the realm of good architecture and urbanism: The participants in a conversation about architecture must be all those who participate in the conversation about the best city, i.e., about the best possible city here and now. When any of the citizens of the city are excluded from that conversation, the conversation is about buildings and not about architecture.

There is, in other words, a distinction between buildings and architecture that parallels the one separating settlements from cities. A conversation about buildings is a lesser one than that about architecture. It is an incomplete conversation or one that covers only part of the topic. For example, it might be about a tradition in construction addressing contingent circumstances, or about meeting particular, contingent requirements and functions, or about low cost, or about a quite personal opinion about what constitutes beauty. These are important topics of conversation, just as is the one about the market, the port, and the other kinds of lesser settlement. But a conversation that excludes any of the topics that belong in the conversation, and a conversation that excludes, or does not take seriously, the views of all the citizens is not about architecture. It is about the lesser thing, building, from which architecture might arise in the same way that a city might arise from a market, but only if it is acknowledged that the conversation is partial and that it must be pursued if it is to rise higher.

A person does not come to know oneself as a whole being, as body, soul, and intellect, in the market. Similarly, he does not learn the whole of what can be known through building. The fuller knowledge requires the city, and it requires architecture. A conversation about building cannot tap very deeply into the wisdom that has accumulated about how and why we ought to build in one way rather than in another. That narrower conversation necessarily excludes members of the community in which we participate, a community of our contemporaries, of our predecessors, and of those

who are yet to come. And that conversation about building takes it as axiomatic that all things are of equal value. A conversation about building, a conversation that stops short of addressing architecture, cannot distinguish between things that are important and those that are trivial. But a conversation about architecture is a conversation that promotes knowledge of oneself. It is about things whose value has allowed them to survive across time. And it is about things that bind us across time and into communities. It is a conversation about something that, in the realm of building, is to be valued above all other things.

When a conversation is about architecture it is about buildings serving the civil life. It is, in other words, a conversation about urbanism. Urbanism is the physical form the political life takes. By politics I do not mean partisanship. By politics I mean the way of life of a people united in a community in which all the members have access to the good and noble life. Putting it another way, architecture is the name given the art of building used to make a physical place where all members of a community may seek justice. This produces the equation that says good architecture is a form of good urbanism which is a form justice takes.

Let me extend the equation. If the civil life is about ethical conduct, or goodness, then architectural form is about aesthetic choice, or beauty. We can complete the trilogy by noting that

Without respect for tradition there is no connection with the community of those who proceeded us and no access to the accumulated knowledge they piled up for us to draw on.

both goodness and beauty are different terms for truth, that is, the enduring order honored in our search for wisdom through knowledge and grace through religion. In this way goodness, truth, and beauty are different aspects of the same thing.

Goodness refers to conduct, truth to knowledge, and beauty to art. When we touch the one, we have the other two within reach.

This is a position of traditionalism, a position that is anathema to modernism. Modernism dismisses the existence of any such thing as goodness, truth, and beauty as knowable, teachable things that can guide one's actions in civil, intellectual, and artistic

activities. Modernists dismiss these qualities, just as they dismiss tradition as a useful guide. But without respect for tradition there is no connection with the community of those who proceeded us and no access to the accumulated knowledge they piled up for us to draw on. They think tradition is a yoke tying us to a useless past. Traditionalists think it is a guide to present action, a guide to be held in pious respect but approached with skepticism about its ability to address current conditions.

What Is Great Architecture?

We will find these points confirmed by examining the buildings that have been and continue to be considered great. Any great building becomes intelligible or reveals itself most completely only when we consider the part it played in an urban setting and serving a political end or purpose.

Standard histories of architecture obscure this point. They usually present the buildings in isolation from their urban setting, treating them as if each is a mere picture in a survey book arranged by style or architect or relative sophistication of the technology or building function, to name several useful and often used schemes for organizing the material. These are useful schemes, but they are not cumulative, and finally they are inadequate.

They are inadequate because they fail to distinguish between building and architecture. They

accept building and architecture as being similar in importance just as they accept a market, a port, a military camp, or a modern commercial center to be a city and not merely a settlement. They are inadequate because they fail to recognize that all great architecture came into existence, or is evoked to serve, a good state.

Let me amend that slightly: All great architecture came into existence, or is evoked to serve, *what the builders, that is, the community, considers to be a good state*. Architecture, in other words, is a statement in the conversation about what the good city ought to be. It comes into existence because someone or some body of people has the power and the authority and the wherewithal to get it built. A good building, then, is a provocative statement. It asserts a position that it makes visible in architectural form, a position that has its counterpart in the position taken by the regime that supports its construction.

We know this from our experience with the past and the present, both in the history of states and the history of architecture: The most provocative statements are made when the state is under assault. In peace and in prosperity, there is nothing much to respond to. But when the authoritative part of the state is under assault, the state must be clear about what it is defending. Thus we can say that buildings are like armies; they are at their best when defending the good state.

Architecture in this light can be understood as the political life carried on in another form. (Please recall that by political life, I mean the way of life of a community united by a common view of the good, one that seeks nobility and justice for all its

members. I do not mean partisan politics.) A review of the past 2,600 years of western architecture would show that we most value the things that have been built to assert a view of the political life or about

the form the regime ought to take. Going farther, it would show that the assertion is not about any view but about a particular view. We value most those states and those buildings that seek a congruence with the order of nature, a congruence that can never be perfect or absolute, but one that is open to constant amendment.

The amendment comes from consulting the lessons of the past and then amending those lessons in light of current knowledge and current circumstances. The process is one that treats the past with piety but accepts what the past teaches with

skepticism. In any living tradition, this dialectic of pious skepticism is always at work, and that is the way traditional architecture is kept new and modern.

Traditional, Avant-Garde Architecture Contrasted

Here is the stark contrast: Over the past 250 years or so, piety has been banished in favor of skepticism, or skepticism has operated without piety. During the entire career of modernism, we have had assertions by an avant-garde that there is an architecture that extends from the individual. It is independent of institutions if not an antidote to them. It has no necessary relationship, or even any relationship at all, to the civil and the urban. And it seeks only its own ends and no larger ends such as the presentation in architectural form of goodness, truth, or beauty.



Meanwhile, the world that revolutionary doctrine sought to overturn and annihilate has survived. It has survived in the natural right doctrines enshrined in the founding documents and subsequent regime of this country. And it has survived in the traditional architecture that is the natural counterpart and complement to that regime.

To abbreviate this point even more: In the 20th century, avant-garde architecture has served any ends, all ends, and therefore no ends, while in the United States, traditional architecture has always sought to be a civil architecture serving civil ends.

The most convincing illustration of this point comes from noting the uses made of the best form of traditional architecture, namely, classical architecture. (In saying that the classical is the best form of traditional architecture I am making two statements. One is simply a definition: Classical architecture is that which serves the highest ends. That is the meaning of the term class. The other is evaluative: Classical architecture more fully embodies goodness, truth, and beauty and better serves the civil ends of the regime. It is better able to be an urban architecture, an architecture that serves cities that are not merely markets, ports, military camps, or commercial centers.) In the twentieth century, classical architecture has always been evoked by those with a passionate conviction that theirs was the right architecture to serve their ends, even when they were evil ends. It was the architecture of the United States when our regime was passionately committed to its founding principles. And it was the architecture of Adolph Hitler when he sought to mask the evil of his regime in forms that seduce and betray, as Leon Krier has explained. In neither case would a lesser architecture do.

Both could have made a different choice. After World War I, both Hitler and the United States had available an alternative to traditional architecture in general and to classical architecture in particular. It was the architecture of the avant-garde, the one that arose from the modernist roots going back to the eighteenth century and given a radical form in the period of turmoil after the Great War. It explicitly denied validity to traditional forms. It explicitly glorified impulse and intuition. It explicitly sought originality while shunning familiarity. It explicitly sought to allow the technical to dictate the artistic

rather than have the technical serve the artistic. And it was based on the premise that the civil ought to serve the architectural. Regimes ought to be created that could bring into existence the urban and architectural images of the architects. This is backwards. Recall that the architectural and the civil are different, covalent forms of the same good city of justice and nobility in which we all aspire to live.

This avant-garde modernist architecture was promulgated as an architecture of peace replacing the traditional architecture serving the regimes that had just engaged in the Great War. To that end, it was an architecture devoted to the individual rather than the state, to commerce rather than institutions, to autonomous, free individuals rather than to states that would go to war with one another. But these good intentions were betrayed by their achievements. It is an architecture so flimsy, so insubstantial, so utilitarian and so bereft of aesthetic value, no one would go to war over it.

Indeed, it is now clear that no one except the narrow circle of the avant-garde has any passion for modernist architecture. It is not an architecture serving anything worthy of great passions. And it never has been.

It simply is not the case that impulse and intuition can be the basis for the civil life and a civil architecture. It is simply not the case that originality is to be preferred to familiarity. The technical cannot dictate to the artistic but must instead serve the artistic. And the civil ought not to serve the architectural but be seen for what it is, as another form of the civil and a complement to it in producing the good city of justice and nobility in which we all aspire to live.

It comes down to this: those with the passionate conviction that the city is the best means of perfecting the life of the individual have always used traditional and classical architecture to assist them in their purpose. As it has always been, so must it be now. There is no other architecture worth fighting for, but to get it, and to get our cities back, we must undertake that good fight.

Is this not the time to take up the fight? The best architecture is produced when it is mustered into service by a regime under assault. Our cities are under assault, by the narcissists, rationalists, relativists, and nihilists who now have the upper hand in schools and professions of architecture and

planning and in the civil service and political agencies that control the form given our cities and urban areas. The desecration of the landscape and

The desecration of the landscape and the dilapidation of our cities are the result of the inexorable working of the laws and ordinances controlling our building practices.

the dilapidation of our cities are the result of the inexorable working of the laws and ordinances controlling our building practices. We have seen what those laws and ordinances produce, and we turn away from it in disgust and horror. We have also seen what tradition can produce, because that is where we go for our vacations and holidays—Charleston, Savannah, Santa Barbara, and so on. These are American cities, embodying the principles upon which our nation was founded. They too were built according to laws and ordinances—different

ones from the ones we now have, many of them implicit understandings of how the civic life ought to be conducted within a community. These cities are worth fighting to protect, just as it is worth fighting for the opportunity to build them again elsewhere in the new contingent circumstances of the present. In our regime, we wage war with law, so we need to change the laws and ordinances so that we can build what we can love instead of continuing to build that which we despise.

Traditionalism holds the past in pious regard even as it assaults it with skepticism about its potential to assist us in the present. We need to look more closely and more piously at the surroundings, both new and old, that we love. And we need to regain the practice of pious skepticism that allows us to extract from them the lessons that can guide us in our present practices. In that way, we will be putting into practice our knowledge that the city is the greatest work of man while the greatest work of the city is the perfection of the nature of man. **CP**

What a Good Local Development Plan Should Contain

A Proposed Model

Edward J. Kaiser
John Davies

A good local land development plan is vital in a community's strategy to control its destiny. This article suggests essential and fundamental features of such a "good plan," exceeding the merely minimal plan but remaining realistic for most North Carolina communities.

The suggested model plan is based on a project conducted jointly by a research team from the Department of City and Regional Planning and the Division of Community Assistance and funded by the North Carolina Clean Water Management Trust Fund. The study included a survey and evaluation of local comprehensive land use plans from across the state in 1998. Based on that information, a review of the growing literature on good planning practices, and the advice of a state-wide advisory committee, the research team formulated *Guidelines for North Carolina Local Governmental Development Plans*. This article is adapted and condensed from those guidelines.¹

This article focuses on the scope of development issues the plan should address, the elements it should contain, and certain essential features of its approach. The suggestions are meant to characterize the

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plan of any community, small or large, municipality or county. What will vary is the methodology that communities use to complete the recommended components.

What We Propose: In a Nutshell

First, to achieve appropriate scope in plan content, we propose that a local comprehensive development plan should integrate land use, environmental, and infrastructure planning in a comprehensive, long range approach.

Second, a plan should contain five specific components:

- A summary of the key features of the plan;
- A statement of community issues and vision;
- An information base of existing and emerging conditions;
- A statement of community values—goals, objectives, and development principles;
- A course of intended governmental policy and action, consisting of a future land use plan, development management program, and a monitoring and plan adjustment program.

Third, a community's plan should establish an appropriately sized planning area and include inter-governmental coordination.

The remainder of the article explains and illustrates these recommended features.

Appropriate Scope in Plan Content

A good land development plan will encompass

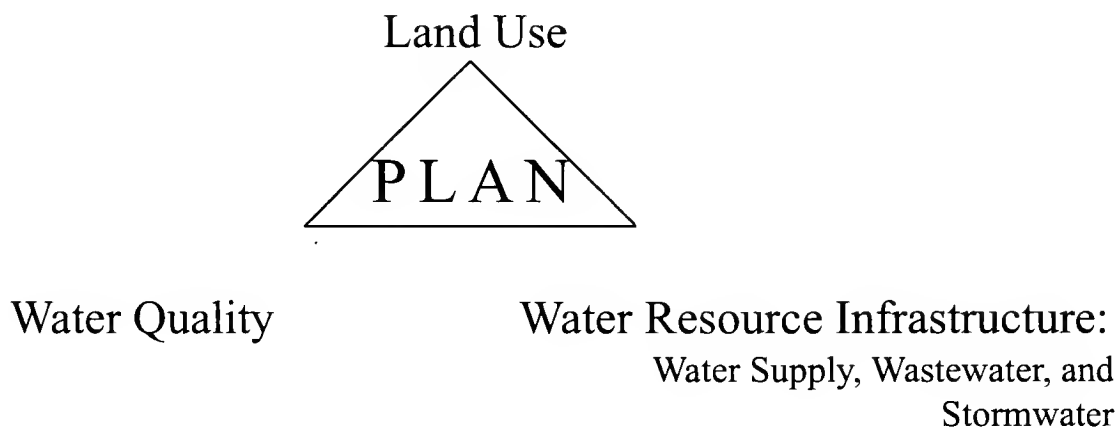
land use, environmental protection, and infrastructure planning at a minimum. That is, it should go beyond the design of future land use patterns, which is the focus of many North Carolina local plans. It should include coordination of environmental policy and land development policy to protect the environment and the coordination of community facilities and infrastructure, particularly water, sewer, and transportation, with land use and environmental protection.

This proposal is based on the premise that environmental protection can only be accomplished in conjunction with good land use planning. In addressing water quality protection matters, for example, the plan must recognize the reciprocity between land use and water resources. The future land use plan must incorporate consideration of the technology, economics, and natural processes that govern water resource and infrastructure planning. Similarly, water resource plans must be consistent with planned future land use, not just project land use trends.

Future land use and infrastructure must be developed jointly, each part consistent with and reinforcing the other. To do that, land use and water resource planning must meet the following criteria:

- They should be based on a common set of facts and assumptions that affect both demand for land and location and demand for water and for wastewater treatment;
- Land use plans should be based on suitability

Figure 1
**Using the Development Plan
To Connect Three Concerns**



analysis that includes the feasibility and economy of extending water and sewer infrastructure;

- The suitability analysis must include the relative vulnerability of environmental features and processes to land use changes, in addition to the usual assessments of accessibility and physical suitability of the land for real estate development; and
- The future land use plan needs to be analyzed and summarized by existing and proposed water and sewer service areas, as well as by sensitive environmental areas such as watersheds, flood plains, and wetlands.

Figure 1 (shown on previous page) suggests the conceptual connections between land use, environmental protection, and infrastructure, particularly water and sewer infrastructure that need to be addressed in the plan.

The Five Basic Components of a Local Plan

The plan should contain five components—an overview, an issues and vision statement, an information base, a goals-objectives-policy framework, and an intended policy and action program.

The overview is an easily accessible summary of the entire plan, focusing on the issues faced by the community, the vision for the future, and the intended course of action. It should also explain the purpose of the plan, the process by which it was formulated and adopted, and the commitment of the elected officials.

The community issues and vision section provides a capsule description of the issues facing the community and its aspirations for the future, based primarily but not solely on broadly participatory community self-examination.

The information base provides and organizes information beyond what is summarized in the issues and vision section. It covers existing and emerging conditions, i.e., where we are and where we are heading.

The goals-objectives-policy framework states the local government's primary goals, the objectives that can be used later to measure progress on those goals, and general development principles to promote those goals and guide the more explicit

policy and course of action in the following component. Goals, objectives, and policies could be integrated with the issues and vision section, instead of constituting a separate section of the plan.

The final and most important part of the plan presents local government's intended course of policy and action. This consists of a map or maps of desired future land use patterns, a development management program, and a program to monitor implementation of the intended policies and actions and make regular adjustments to them.

Component One:

Introduction and Overview of the Plan

Tell them what you are going to say, say it, and tell them what you said. — Anonymous

This initial section should be a persuasive and easily understood mini-version of the key features of the plan. It should quickly inform the reader of the essential issues facing the community, present a vision of the future to guide the plan, and summarize the policies and actions to which the community is committing itself. It should also explain the purposes of the plan, communicate elected officials' commitment to using it, and explain the process by which the plan has been created and adopted and through which its implementation will be monitored and the plan adjusted. Thus, it is much more than an introduction; it becomes a condensed version of the complete plan that can be quickly read and grasped and even widely distributed as a plan summary.

Component Two: Issues and Vision Statement

Where there is no vision, the people perish.

— Proverbs 29:18 (from Gastonia, NC, plan)

Over the last decade, communities across the nation increasingly have found it useful to initiate plan making with a public, and sometimes inter-governmental, participatory process that combines taking stock of current issues with a future visioning process. This component in the plan is designed first to identify broadly held public values, problems widely agreed-upon as needing attention, major assets of the community, and major trends and forces impacting or potentially impacting the future of the community. But the process doesn't stop there. The participants in this process also formulate a vision of what the community wants to become, including

a vision of the future physical appearance and form of the community. Sometimes this process includes suggesting general development principles to implement the vision. A coalition of national organizations is drafting model state enabling legislation that would make this a required element in local plan-making.

There are several reasons for wanting such a section in the plan. First of all, it achieves broad and intense participation from the community and is educational for community leaders, stakeholders, and ordinary citizens. It can, and for many communities should, involve even neighboring communities. Thus it promotes both the participatory and the intergovernmental qualities that a good plan should have. Secondly, the issues and visioning approach examines both facts and values, and probes both existing and potential conditions in the community. Thus, it improves everyone's understanding of needs and values, initiates the plan from the broadest possible community base, and creates broad community momentum to address the future in more explicit ways in the sections of the plan to follow.

The following items are recommended in an issues and vision element of the plan (taken mainly from APA, *Growing Smart: Legislative Guidebook*, pp. 7-73-77, 1998):

1. A description of major trends and forces;
2. A report of the community's major advantages and opportunities for desirable growth and development, as well as disadvantages and threats to appropriate development;
3. An account of the important community values to be promoted and problems and issues currently or potentially facing the local government;
4. A vision statement that identifies in words an overall image of what the community wants to be and how it wants to look in the future; and
5. (Optional, may be part of this initial component or part of the later component on goals, objectives, and policies) A statement of general development principles to guide the community's planning and actions.

The county commissioners or city council may consider officially adopting the initial issues and

vision element as an interim policy plan while the more formal development plan is being prepared. In that way it can immediately serve as a guide to the local legislature and executive branch in their decisions about public investments and ordinances.

Component Three: The Information Base

While the issues and vision component often includes a preliminary assessment of existing and emerging conditions, it is based on readily available data and the participants' sense of the relative importance of conditions and issues. The purpose of the information base element in the plan is to reassess and deepen that original information base. In the process, some of the community's issues and problems identified in the participatory issues and visioning process may be de-mythed while others are validated.

The information base for development planning should generally describe and analyze the following aspects of the local planning jurisdiction:

1. The present and projected future population and economy;
2. The land use and land development system by which the community physically changes and grows, and by which it improves or declines.
3. The public infrastructure that serves the community's population, economy, and land development industry. These facilities also influence real estate market and development decisions in the market.
4. The natural environment, which represents the community's valuable and possibly vulnerable resources, as well as physical constraints to land use and land development.
5. The de-facto development and environmental management system of local, state, and federal policies, ordinances, investments, and incentives.

The information base should encompass both temporal and spatial dimensions. That is, the studies should map existing conditions and show the spatial impacts of trends and projected conditions over time. For example, the population study covers both present and future projected population and describes variations in population characteristics among locations within the jurisdiction's planning area.

The information base should cover the entire geographic area appropriate for land development

planning. For growing municipalities, the appropriate planning area should extend significantly beyond the present municipal limits and even beyond present extra-territorial jurisdiction to include areas likely to be under development pressure within the next 20 to 30 years. For counties, that generally will be the entire county, perhaps with special attention given to growing areas within the county.

Information Base Sub-Element 1:
The Population and Economy

A community's population and economy are its twin engines of growth and change. Population size and employment determine the amount of land needed, and its location. They also dictate the demand for public and private services and infrastructure (such as public water supply and wastewater treatment, schools, and recreation).

Future population and economy estimates should not be based exclusively on projections. The planning process should consider what population and economic levels are best; what economic and demographic structure is best, and what rate of growth is best for the community. In other words, population and economic analyses can have a normative side, and economic and population levels and rates of growth can be, to some degree, policy choices as well as trend projections. Communities should explore the number of people and the amount and types of economic activity that can be sustained without unacceptable harm to the community's long run environmental quality and community character.

Information Base Sub-Element 2:
Land Use and Development

These studies assess several facets of land use and development. First they include an *inventory and analysis of existing land supply and conditions*. Most plans include such a study consisting of an existing land use map and table showing the number of acres in existing uses. A good plan will go further to include a second study that *estimates future quantities of land that will be needed to accommodate increases in land use activity* indicated by population and economic growth. A third study then should *assess the suitability of the land supply to meet the projected or designed future demand* for urban development and redevelopment.

It should account for the need for land for agriculture, forestry, and ecological processes not reflected in the urbanization estimates. That study examines factors that influence the amount, location, timing, and type of development and redevelopment activity in the land market.

Information Base Sub-Element 3:
Community Facilities and Infrastructure

The plan should contain an analysis of existing community facilities and future needs with special attention to:

- public water supply systems;
- wastewater management systems;
- stormwater and floodplain management facilities and policies; and
- transportation systems.

Like land and land use analysis, the studies of community facilities require both supply side and demand side analysis, as well as an inventory of existing facilities.

Public Water Supply Systems

An inventory of publicly and privately owned drinking water supply systems should be provided in the plan, including a map of facility locations and their service areas. Safe yields of each source, maximum treatment capacity, and storage capacity should be stated. Where service boundaries exist or where they can be estimated on the basis of engineering considerations or policy, geographic boundaries should be identified and land areas and capacities should be stated by service area. Current rates of use should be estimated. If a new water supply watershed will be required, the plan should address that issue and delineate its proposed future boundaries. The water supply plan itself may be included by reference or summarized in the development plan.

Wastewater Management Systems

Current conditions of the wastewater management system should be described. They include identification of existing and potential service area boundaries, description of collection system and treatment works and their problems, and a summary statement of the adequacy of the existing system, the problems that need to be considered, and when they need to be addressed.

Stormwater and Floodplain Management Systems

This element should identify flood prone areas and stormwater management facilities, policies, and plans. At a minimum, floodplains delineated as part of the National Flood Insurance Program should be shown on maps. Properties at risk within these areas should be identified and summarized to estimate community vulnerability. Other areas where stormwater runoff is known to cause localized flooding should be identified. Stormwater management policies should be identified by reference to appropriate documents.

Transportation Systems

This element should identify the existing and planned transportation systems in the planning jurisdiction. These include thoroughfares, greenways, bikeways, transit routes and stations. This element should also assess the problems in the existing system and whether the future system will serve future land use patterns.

Many transportation plans are based on projections of existing patterns of land use and not on the future land use plan. Instead, the transportation plan and future land use design should be integrated.

Other Public Facilities

Additional community facilities may be inventoried where appropriate. These may include solid waste storage and treatment sites, schools, parks and recreation sites, libraries and other cultural facilities, hospitals and public health facilities, general government buildings,, and utilities and telecommunications facilities.

Information Base Sub-Element 4: Environmental Resources

Environmental resources affect development plans in at least two ways. First, they limit the feasibility of using lands in particular locations for particular purposes. Lands may be unsuitable for development due to flooding, steep slopes, highly erodable or poorly drained soils, unstable soils for foundations, and other characteristics of the landscape that pose health and safety concerns or substantially increase development costs. Second, potential adverse effects of development on sensitive

environmental systems could require either prohibition of certain types of development in some locations or imposition of costly site planning and engineering requirements on development permits.

Studies of environmental resources may include:

- Natural resources to be respected and protected. These include state or federally designated environmentally sensitive areas in particular, such as state designated water supply watershed categories, streams, lakes, and estuaries, river basins, groundwater aquifers, wetlands, floodplains and floodways, and mineral deposits.
- Land characteristics affecting suitability for development and potential to cause environmental degradation, including erodable soils; soil conditions unsuitable for septic tanks or where installation of septic tanks could trigger special conditions; steep slopes; areas subject to flooding, sinkholes, mudflows, and land subsidence; and noise zones around airports.
- Cultural and historic sites of special architectural, cultural, historic, archeological or aesthetic value.

The environmental studies may also cover land uses of particular relevance to environmental quality issues, such as brownfield sites, air quality permit holders, and wastewater dischargers.

Consider a local example of one of several types of maps that might be included in a natural resources analysis: a map showing the many water supply watersheds for Orange County, NC, covering over half of the land in the county. Areas designated as "Water Supply Watershed" on the map contain land draining to existing reservoirs which serve as public water supplies, or to potential reservoir sites or stream intakes for drinking water withdrawal. These areas have been designated for protection against threats to the water quality supplies, in accordance with County watershed protection programs and the North Carolina Water supply Watershed protection Act of 1989. Water protection restrictions on land development are in effect as required by the Act. The Water Quality Critical Areas on the map designate land within one-half mile of the normal pool elevation of an existing or proposed public water supply impoundment, or the ridge line of the

watershed, whichever is closest to the normal pool elevation of the reservoir. More stringent land use and development regulations are in effect in those areas.

Not all of these elements are clearly relevant to all land development plan situations. Judgment is required to determine which ones are important to a particular area. Also, the environmental studies should be coordinated with the studies of land supply for development and redevelopment discussed above in the section on land use and development studies.

Information Base Element 5:

Existing Local, State, and Federal Policies and Development Management Capability

No local government is without a legacy of existing policies and programs that constitute a de facto development management program. These existing policies and programs generally have been assembled by different agencies of local, state, and federal government over a considerable period of time. As a consequence, they may be enmeshed with existing problems while offering potential solutions. Thus, an important element of the information base for the plan is an inventory and assessment of local, state, and federal policies, ordinances, and programs that significantly affect development and redevelopment.

This includes a description of relevant policies, maps of areas covered by such programs, assessments of progress in implementing existing policy and plans and obstacles encountered, and assessments of local government's inherent administrative, financial, and legal capabilities to implement its development management programs. This study should include existing and potential inter-governmental agreements, as well as areas of overlap and conflict.

Component Four: Goals, Objectives, and Policies

If you don't know where you're going, you might end up someplace else.

—Casey Stengel (from Gastonia, NC, plan)

This section of the plan identifies goals implied by the community values, problems, and aspirations initially uncovered in the visioning process. It also explores additional public interests to be pursued in

the plan. Finally, it expresses all of these direction-setting ideas in a concise and useful format, usually as goals, objectives, and policies.

Goals are defined as future conditions to which the community aspires. They are usually expressed in fairly general terms, but may then be followed by more specific objectives. Objectives are intermediate achievements indicating progress in achieving goals. They are more tangible, specific, and attainable than goals and may even be measurable. Objectives will be useful in the benchmarking task in the monitoring component of the plan.

While goals and objectives represent ends, policies represent a step toward means. They are general action principles to guide government's decisions as well as the plan's intended action program and its future land use patterns. For example, they address the type, location, timing, density, mix, and other characteristics of future development or redevelopment to be promoted in order to achieve goals. Policies do not normally specify the actions to be taken, but rather establish principles to be followed, just as the Ten Commandments form a set of moral principles to guide an individual's actions.

Plans should consider four types of goals:

- *The specific goals and aspirations of the community*, derived from participatory goal-setting processes perhaps even from the earlier issues and visioning stage. For example, there may have been agreement that the community wants to maintain a dominant downtown or maintain a particular quality in existing neighborhoods.
- *Mandated goals*, prescribed by state and federal policy and from judicial interpretation of constitutional rights. For example, goals to protect water quality in North Carolina are explicit and implicit in state government programs such as the water supply watershed classifications.
- *Generic public goals*, that come from traditions of good government and good planning. Efficiency, equity, wide choice, health and safety, and quality of life are examples of generic public interest goals.
- *Needs*, which are calculations of requirements for land, services, and amenities at chosen

standards or level of service. Examples include calculation of the acres of land required for future development, or additional capacity and service area needed for future wastewater treatment.

The vision statement is a good format for incorporating an initial expression of future aspirations. That can be followed up by more in-depth analysis of needs, mandated policy goals, and generic planning goals. The development plan should concentrate particularly on goals and policies directly relating to land use, environmental quality, and infrastructure.

Component Five: Program of Policy and Action

Every government that zones land, or makes public capital investments, or acquires land for public purposes, or taxes land for service, or in any other way attempts to influence private development is operating a development management system . . . —Einsweiler et al., 1978.

Components two, three, and four, described above, define the facts, values, aspirations, and action principles to provide general direction for the plan. The fifth component specifies just what the

to guide extension of urban service areas. It also includes proposed annexations and extra-territorial jurisdiction extensions, inter-governmental agreements, follow-up small area plans or functional plans, and incentives to be imbedded in those ordinances and programs. It specifies a time schedule for implementation and assigns responsibilities for their accomplishment.

- A program for monitoring the implementation of the plan and adjusting development management program elements accordingly.

Policy and Action Sub-Element 1:

Desired Future Land Use

And Infrastructure Patterns

The purpose of this element is to provide spatial specificity to the plan's recommended policies and actions. It achieves this by mapping the desired future pattern of urban land uses, infrastructure and community facilities, and lands for critical environmental processes. The infrastructure component should indicate locations of the major future transportation facilities, general location of major water and wastewater treatment facilities and proposed service areas, and other major facilities, such as an airport or open space system.

The future land development pattern of the local government's jurisdiction may be indicated in one of several formats. The two most common formats are the land classification plan and the land use design format. The land

Policies do not normally specify the actions to be taken, but rather establish principles to be followed, just as the Ten Commandments form a set of moral principles to guide an individual's actions.

community intends to do to meet its needs, mitigate its problems, and achieve its goals. It should contain three elements:

- Desired spatial pattern of future land uses, including transportation, water, and sewer infrastructure and areas reserved for critical natural processes.
- A program of actions to implement the goals, general policies, and future land use pattern. The program of action usually includes a combination of new ordinances, modifications to existing ordinances, a community facilities/capital improvements program, and policies

classification plan format maps those areas of the proposed planning jurisdiction where transition from rural to urban development will occur to accommodate growth and where redevelopment or significant infill will occur. It also indicates where development should not occur. These include, for example, special habitats, areas where water quality is a critical concern, and areas where natural hazards such as flooding, storm surge, or expected erosion, pose a threat to development. Also included are areas designated as "environmentally sensitive" by state policy, e.g., state-designated streams and watersheds, wetlands, and rare species habitats.

Locations of major activity centers (commercial centers, employment centers, industrial areas) may also be indicated in a land classification plan. It should also include locations of major water, sewer, and transportation facilities, although in practice the land classification format often omits that element.

The other common format for indicating future land use is the “land use design.” This format shows more specific future land use categories than does the land classification plan. It depicts the arrangements of residential areas, commercial and employment areas, mixed use areas, major activity centers, major community facilities, and urban open space systems.

Proposed areas of agriculture, forestry, and environmental uses can also be shown. Densities are often indicated. Thus, the land use design format provides more specificity about how land using activities and community facilities are arranged in the future than does the land classification plan. It shows more about how the various land uses and community facilities fit together to form a community.

Whatever format is used to designate future urban development and other land use policy, it should be supported by a narrative indicating how the future land use promotes the general policy principles and goals of the plan. It should include an analysis, in text and tables, of the projected 20-year build-out of the proposed future land use pattern, including numbers of dwelling units, employment, and the acreage being devoted to various land use designations on the land classification or land use design map.

For each infrastructure service area, the plan should indicate the population, number of dwellings, and employment that will require water and sewer at build-out of that service area, along with their implied infrastructure requirements. It should also describe the service levels, infrastructure capacity and timing, and any other significant dimensions of the public infrastructure being proposed for that service area. The analyses should state density

assumptions and other assumptions involved in the analysis. It should compare the amount of land required to the amount of suitable land provided in the land use design or land classification plan; and compare the amount of water and sewer and other services required to the amount provided by facilities proposed in the plan.

Policy and Action Sub-Element 2:

Intended Development Management Program

The development management program prescribes a five to ten year sequence of actions by governmental, intergovernmental, and non-governmental or public-private entities. This implementation-oriented program may consist of, but is not limited to the following types of components:

Whatever format is used to designate future urban development and other land use policy, it should be supported by a narrative indicating how the future land use promotes the general policy principles and goals of the plan.

- A proposed development code or package of coordinated regulations for guiding development, redevelopment, and neighborhood conservation, and protecting environmental quality. It does not include the actual ordinances. They would be prepared during implementation of the plan. However,

the plan should outline the standards for type, density, mix, impacts, site design, construction practices, exactions and impact fees, and incentives to encourage particular development. It should delineate districts where various standards, procedures, exactions, fees, and incentives will apply.

- A program for expanding and improving urban infrastructure and community facilities and their service areas. It should include the timing and geographic boundaries of service area expansions; the proposed distribution of costs of land and facilities (among governments and agencies, and between public and private sectors); and links to regulations and incentives to assure that

adequate facilities are provided to development as it occurs. A capital improvement program may either be part of this component or coordinated with it.

- An acquisition program to obtain property rights by purchase, gift, or exaction. Acquisition provides open space for recreation and environmental protection, obtains lands for future community facilities or to promote redevelopment, economic development, and affordable housing.
- An on-going education program about the development plan, aimed at elected officials, appointed boards, development industry, and others.
- Inter-governmental agreements to coordinate community facilities, infrastructure, acquisition, and regulation programs among local governments and with state agencies.
- State or federal regulations and other programs directly affecting development in the local jurisdiction.

For each of its components, the development management program should specify the policy and action content, its location or geographic boundaries, its relative priority and timing, and the agency responsible for implementing the component. It should also describe its connection with components of the action program.

Policy and Action Sub-Element 3: Program for Monitoring and Updating the Plan

This element outlines procedures for *monitoring implementation of the plan*, and for *adjusting the plan* accordingly. Monitoring covers three aspects: how well the community is carrying out the policies and development management program of the plan, whether resulting development and redevelopment is occurring consistent with the plan, and whether benchmark conditions related to objectives are improving.

Based on the results of the monitoring and evaluation and on changing conditions affecting the community, the plan should be updated periodically. Updating occurs at two levels. The first level might be annual or biannual assessments of progress, perhaps calling for planning reports and a related program of adjustments in the policy and action program. The second level would consist of more

thorough revisions at longer time intervals, say 5 to 10 years.

An illustrative table of contents for a local development plan is shown at the end of the article. It is based on excerpts from several NC local plans, selected to suggest the content of a good local comprehensive development plan.

Spatial Scope of a Good Local Land Development Plan

To be effectively comprehensive, a community's plan should establish an appropriately sized planning area and incorporate inter-governmental coordination.

Delineation of an Appropriate Planning Area

The geographic area to be addressed in the plan, called the planning area, should extend significantly beyond the present municipal boundaries and area of extraterritorial jurisdiction for cities and towns. If at all feasible, it should include all areas likely to comprise the future urban growth area and require urban services as a consequence of the plan and market forces over the next 20-30 years. Based on population, economic, and environmental information, the planning area should be determined early in the planning process and in conjunction with neighboring governments.

For counties, the planning area should generally include the entire county, though it might focus on development corridors or sectors of the county where land development issues or environmental issues are foreseeable.

Inter-governmental Coordination

In almost every case where the plan covers the entire area likely to be under development pressure over the next 20 years, the planning process should account for inter-governmental coordination. This is desirable to achieve consistency on assumptions about emerging conditions and projections, and to achieve coordination in the design and implementation of proposed policies and actions. Such inter-governmental coordination is particularly critical in reconciling land use controls along boundaries, achieving infrastructure efficiencies, shaping regional open space and an efficient regional employment distribution, and addressing issues of shared natural resources, such as a water supply

watershed or an estuary. Coordination may be required for delineation of extraterritorial jurisdictions and for land use regulations and capital improvements outside the extraterritorial jurisdictions. Both counties and municipalities must also coordinate their policies with state and Federal programs.

Summary

The proposed model of a local land development plan has certain definite features, an important one being a comprehensive and simultaneous approach to land use, environmental protection, and public infrastructure. The model development plan thus extends beyond the typical land use plan, though it is not as broad as a local comprehensive plan, which also may address community development, economic development, and housing issues.

Another feature of the proposed model plan is that it has five specific components: an overview of key features, an issues and vision statement, a specific information base (one that addresses population and economic change, land use, environment, infrastructure, and an assessment of local, state, and federal development and environmental programs), a goals-objectives-policies framework, and an intended program of policies and action. There is considerable flexibility in how the five suggested components of the plan are designed and how they are arranged. The rigor and depth of the methodology employed in creating them, and the detail in which they are presented, may also vary according to the particular circumstances of the local government creating the plan. Nevertheless, the components themselves represent necessary elements in a comprehensive local government's strategy for managing the uncertainties of its future.

The model plan also features a planning area sufficiently large to incorporate potential urban growth areas over the long-range period covered by the plan.

Lastly, the model plan incorporates inter-governmental coordination concerning

In almost every case where the plan covers the entire area likely to be under development pressure over the next 20 years, the planning process should account for inter-governmental coordination.

determination of the planning area, assumptions about emerging conditions and projections, future urban growth areas, extraterritorial jurisdiction and joint planning areas.

If these features are present the plan has an excellent chance to be effective in helping a community guide its future development. What it will take in addition is persistent

commitment by elected and other officials in implementing the plan and making appropriate adjustments over time to reflect what a community is learning from implementation. ☞

End Notes

¹The *Guidelines* are scheduled for publication by the Division of Community Assistance later this year. A related article, focusing on the statewide survey results and the issue of addressing water quality in the development plan may be found in Hinkley, Sara, and Edward J. Kaiser, "Making the Land Use-Water Quality Connection," *Carolina Planning*, vol. 24, no. 1, Winter 1999. The authors wish to thank David Moreau, co-principal investigator on the project; Sara Hinkley, Jeremy Klop, and Jeff Masten, research assistants; John Berndt and Tom Richter of DCA; and the projects advisory committee.

Appendix: SEE FOLLOWING PAGE

AN ILLUSTRATIVE TABLE OF CONTENTS FOR A LOCAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

(Adapting excerpts from actual North Carolina plans)

Chapter I. The Proposals in a Nutshell

- A. Why is planning important: need for the plan, its mission, uses of the plan
- B. How the plan was made
 - 1. Participatory/outreach process
 - 2. Sequence of planning steps
 - 3. Adoption
- C. Highlights of the plan
 - 1. Where we are: existing and emerging issues, important values
 - 2. Where we want to go: a vision for the future, the node and corridor urban form
 - 3. How we can get there: a program of policy and action
- D. How the remainder of the plan is organized and how to use it.

Chapter II. Issues and Vision: Concerns and Aspirations of Community Interests

- A. Key issues:
 - 1. The pace of growth
 - 2. Water and sewer services
 - 3. Loss of farmland
- B. Significant existing and emerging conditions
- C. A vision for the future node and corridor urban form

Chapter III. Analysis of Existing and Emerging Conditions

- A. Population, Housing, and Economy
 - 1. Growth, composition and age, seasonal population, housing characteristics
 - 2. Local economy
- B. Land use and development
 - 1. Existing land use, vacant land, land water compatibility problems, land use conflicts
 - 2. Future land use needs, demographic trends, commercial and industrial needs, housing trends, public land needs, areas experiencing market pressure
 - 3. Development suitability:
 - 4. Physical land suitability (soils, topography, flooding...)
 - 5. Environmentally fragile areas (wetlands, public trust areas, estuaries and shorelines...)

- 6. Natural resource areas: potential prime agricultural soils, gravel deposits, marine resources
- C. Community facilities and public infrastructure
 - 1. Water services: existing condition and capacity, existing and planned service areas, future needs, existing plans to meet needs
 - 2. Wastewater treatment: existing condition and capacity, existing and planned service areas, future needs, existing plans to meet needs
 - 3. Transportation
- D. Environmental Resources
 - 1. Vulnerable environmental resources: estuaries, trout waters, water supply watershed, wetlands,
 - 2. Cultural and historic resources
- E. The De facto Development Management Program: Local, State, and Federal Policies
 - 1. Review of the 1992 Land Use Plan and its implementation
 - 2. Existing water and sewer plans
 - 3. Existing regulations: inventory, assessments, and directions for possible change
 - 4. Existing state and regional programs directly affecting development: water supply watershed restrictions on development
 - 5. Wetland requirements
 - 6. Regional Transportation Improvement Plan

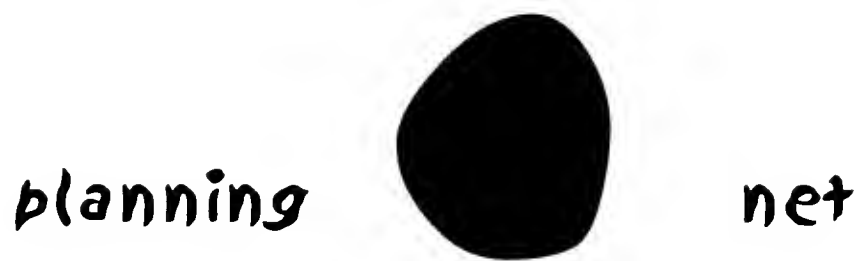
Chapter IV. Goals, Objectives, and Policies to Guide us into the Future

- A. What we want for our community
- B. Goals and policies
 - 1. Land use
 - 2. Environmental quality
 - 3. Water and sewer service
 - 4. Recreation and open space
 - 5. Transportation

Chapter V. A Plan for the Future

- A. The land classification plan
 - 1. Urban development areas and policies
 - 2. Natural resource conservation areas and

- policies
- 3. Rural areas and policies
- 4. Community facilities and infrastructure
- B. Development and environmental quality management programs
 - 1. Unified development ordinance
 - 2. Community education program
 - 3. Coordination with neighboring governments
- C. Managing redevelopment and infill
- D. Environmental protection ordinances and acquisition program
- E. Water quality protection program
- F. Community facilities and infrastructure
 - 1. Water supply
 - 2. Wastewater treatment
- G. Putting the plan into action
 - 1. Action phasing and priorities
 - 2. Roles and responsibilities
- H. Monitoring and plan adjustment



Visit the Carolina Planning web site.

www.unc.edu/depts/dcrpweb/carplan/Default.htm

Master's Projects

The following is a list of Master's Projects prepared by students who graduated from the Department of City and Regional Planning at UNC-Chapel Hill in 1999. To obtain a copy of one or more of these projects, contact Patricia Coke at (919) 962-4784.

Michelle Grace Adams. The Kids Plan-it: A workbook for Planners Teaching Children about Planning

Kevin Paul Ames. Land Use Regulations and Real Estate Development: A Case Study of the Coastal Area Management Act at Bald Head Island, North Carolina

Carmen J. Borg. Non-Motorized Transportation Facilities in Orange County

Gregory Robert Brown. An Overview of Infill Housing

Cassandra Callaway. Do Downtown Revitalization Projects Generate Economic Benefits? A Guidebook for Applying Cost-Benefit Analysis, With an Application to Asheville, North Carolina

Holiday Collins. The Land-Use-Transit Connection: Creating Transit-Friendly Communities in North Carolina

Richard M. Fletcher. The Availability of Business Development Finance in Savannah, Georgia

Eric Robert Forman. North Carolina's Customized Job Training Programs: An Evaluation of Effectiveness

Allison Tucker Freeman. Addressing the Housing Shortage in Post-Apartheid South Africa: An Evaluation of Three Initiatives

Patricia Allyn Gessner. Assessing Accessibility: A Case Study of the Rate of Compliance with the Fair Housing Act's Handicap Requirements in Durham, North Carolina

Stephanie Ann Jennings. Ensuring Success for IDAs: A Guide for Building a Strong Financial Skills Building Program

Jeremy R. Klop. Delivering Planning Services: Using New Technology to Improve Customer Service – Reflections on the Process

MASTER'S PROJECTS LIST

Sharon Lynn Knuth. Implementation of a Countywide Land Trust in Orange County, North Carolina

Audrey Levenson. Neighborhood-Level Indicators of Community Well-Being and Progress: Issues of Applicability, Implementation, and Effect

John D. Lucero. Financing Supportive Housing for Individuals with Mental Illness

Sarah Anne Magruder. Building Consensus about Purchase of Development Rights (PDR) Programs: A Case Study of Orange County, North Carolina

Lisa Gardner Maune. A Case Study of the Lloyd-Andrews Historic Farmstead. Protecting the Family Farm: Efforts to Save Our Cultural and Natural Resources

Samantha Metcalf. Bass Lake Preserve: The Story of a Conservation Easement

Louis Michael Mosurak. Proposed Development Plan and Implementation Strategy Northwest Regional Activity Center U.S. Highway 64 and Western Wake Expressway Apex, North Carolina

Maria-Constanza Pallini. COMMUNITY VISIONING: A Community Problem-Solving Approach to Strategic Planning

Joanna L. Pi-Sunyer. Can Federal Transportation Funds Help Pay for Child Care?

Richard Alan Reichle. Delivering Planning Services: Using New Technology to Improve Customer Service – Reflections on the Process

Linda Margaret Stalker. Does Travel Information Influence Commuter and Non-Commuter Behavior? Results from the San Francisco Bay Area TravInfo Project

Chenicqua Taria Williams. An Expanded Consolidated Plan: Including Neighborhood

Level Data

Virginie Amerlynck. An Introductory Guide to Job Training for Community-Based Organizations

Denise M. Drescher. Airport Economic Impact Analysis: A Case Study and Guide for Practitioners

Benjamin M. Grinnell. Rural Economic Development Through Distance Learning: An Assessment of the Entrepreneurial Education Network Developed by the North Carolina Technological Development Authority

Sara M. Hinkley. City boundaries: The Politics of Regional Development in Atlanta

Adam Russ Kaufman. The Gridded Street Network: Right for the Triangle?

Jessica H. Leveen. Inner City Supermarket Development: Implications for Community Development Corporations

Patrick J. McMahon. A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of the Factors Contributing to Collisions Between Pedestrians and Vehicles Along Roadway Segments

Michael Narcowich. A Comparison of Methodologies for Market Studies: Do Practitioners Follow the Textbook?

Derek Peebles. Rebuilding Community: Strategies for Retrofitting America's Suburbs

Juliellen Elizabeth Sarver. Toward Collective Design: A Discussion of Geographic Information Systems and Computer Aided Design

Alexandra J. Vrtunski. The Downtown Revitalization of Asheville, North Carolina: A Model from the Mountains

Steven N. West. The Carrboro Affordable Housing Density Bonus: A Critical Analysis and Proposals for Improvement

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